

An analytic approach to detecting coupling in the presence of noise and nonlinearity

Theoden I. Netoff,^{1,2} Louis M. Pecora,³ and Steven J. Schiff^{1,2,4,*}

¹*Krasnow Institute for Advanced Studies,
George Mason University, Fairfax, VA, USA*

²*Program in Neuroscience, The George Washington
University School of Medicine, Washington, DC, USA*

³*Naval Research Laboratory, Washington, DC, USA*

⁴*Department of Psychology, George Mason University, Fairfax, VA, USA*

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Abstract

A rigorous analytical approach is developed to test for the existence of a continuous nonlinear functional relationship between systems. We compare the application of this nonlinear local technique to the existing analytical linear global approach in the setting of increasing additive noise. For natural systems with unknown levels of noise and nonlinearity, we propose a general framework for detecting coupling. Lastly, we demonstrate the applicability of this method to detect coupling between simultaneous experimentally measured intracellular voltages between neurons within a mammalian neuronal network.

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Faced with an experimental system whose equations are unknown, it is often important to determine when components of the system are coupled. An example of current interest is the behavior of neural systems. We now understand that many neural cognitive phenomena, from insects [1] to mammals [2], correspond to computations performed in transiently synchronous ensembles of neurons. But in order to define such functional ensembles, one must first determine whether the neurons are coupled.

Neural systems are examples of natural systems where the elements are highly nonlinear, and beset with an indeterminate amount of noise. We expect that all natural systems will present two types of impediments to detection of coupling: noise and nonlinearity. We introduce here the idea that there are two approaches to coupling detection, each of which are well suited to particular balances of noise and nonlinearity. If the balance is unknown, neither approach alone can be relied upon to detect coupling.

Crosscorrelation and continuity are examples of statistics suited to extreme cases of the balance between noise and nonlinearity. For instance, crosscorrelation probes globally for the simplest functional relation, linear, and is the most tolerant to noise. Noise tolerance comes from the linear nature of the assumed functional form which allows added noise to separate from the signal and average to zero. Crosscorrelation is well-developed and analytic estimates of significance for the statistic exist [8] obviating the need for bootstrap numerical testing [9]. Fig. 1 schematically illustrates our present view of coupling detection. Unfortunately, in many experimental situations we do not know which quadrant from Fig. 1 is appropriate.

Continuity makes few assumptions about the nature of an underlying functional relationship, asking only whether a small region of data about a system statepoint from one system, maps to a corresponding small region about a similar system state point in another system [4, 6]. Continuity is thus a local property requiring minimal knowledge of the local structure of a function (e.g. no Jacobian must be accurately fit [7]). Nonlinear measures of synchronization and prediction have recently been developed, which are capable of detecting coupling between nonlinear systems when linear methods fail. Previous work with spinal cord motoneurons were consistent with the usefulness of nonlinear methods to identify certain neuronal interactions [3]. Nevertheless, a continuity measure underlies many of the recent approaches, including prediction at zero time, mutual nearest neighbors, and mutual variance [3, 5].

We show here that, like crosscorrelation, we can put a continuity statistic and its associated significance in analytical setting that eliminates the need for extensive numerical work to support the results. Previous attempts to quantify such measures have not dealt with the independence of sampled neighborhoods rigorously [4], or have resorted to bootstrap methods in order to establish the significance of continuity [3].

The continuity of a function relating multivariate data sets, X and Y, is quantified using local measures of continuity about selected fiduciary points, x_i . The multivariate data can be simultaneous measurements of several variables or, in our examples, delay-reconstructions from time series. Within a distance δ from x_i we can collect the n_i^δ nearest neighbors to x_i . The x_i point has a corresponding time indexed point y_i in the Y data set. Within a distance ϵ from y_i will be n_i^ϵ nearest neighbors of y_i . For each fiducial point pair (x_i, y_i) , a count m_i of the subset of n_i^δ points that have corresponding time indexed points within n_i^ϵ are determined.

Under the null hypothesis, that there is no functional relationship between the two data sets, the nearest neighbors in δ will be no more likely to map into ϵ than if they had been chosen randomly from X. This can be thought of as a classic 'urn' problem [10], where all of the points in the δ set are red, and the rest of the X points are blue. If a continuous function exists relating X and Y, given an ϵ there will always be a δ where all red points are within ϵ . Since we are dealing with real data rather than analytical functions, we relax the strict definition and allow $m_i \leq n_i^\delta$ be the number of red balls in the ϵ set.

Under the null hypothesis, points are randomly mapped from X to Y, and a handful n_i^ϵ are selected from Y without replacement. The number of m_i points in n_i^ϵ should therefore

fall under the hypergeometric distribution $h(k|n_\delta, n_\epsilon, N) = \frac{\binom{n_\delta}{k} \binom{N - n_\delta}{n_\epsilon - k}}{\binom{N}{n_\epsilon}}$ [10], where

$\binom{A}{B}$ is the binomial coefficient. The probability that k points from n_i^δ map into ϵ is equal to the number of combinations of k points that could have mapped into ϵ , $\binom{n^\delta}{k}$, multiplied by the number of combinations of points from outside δ that could have mapped into ϵ , $\binom{N - n^\delta}{n^\epsilon - k}$, divided by the total number of combinations of n_i^ϵ points that could have been

selected, $\binom{N}{n^\epsilon}$.

We want to estimate the probability that m_i or fewer points from δ map into ϵ by chance. This probability is the sum of the cumulative hypergeometric function for $k = 0 \dots m_i$

$$h_{cum}(m|n_\delta, n_\epsilon, N) = \sum_{k=0}^{m_i} h(k|n_\delta, n_\epsilon, N).$$

We define significant fiduciary points as those where h_{cum} suggests that m_i are significant. Global continuity is then estimated by counting the number of significant fiduciary points, N_{sig} . The significance limit may be estimated by $m_* = \min\{m_i | h_{cum}(m_i|n_\delta, n_\epsilon, N) > 0.95\}$ (note n_δ and n_ϵ are fixed), which sets a threshold m_* , the probability of which is the smallest integer value for which m_i is expected to occur with probability greater than 0.95. For a given m_* the corresponding $p_* = P(m_i > m_*) = 1 - h_{cum}(m_*|n_\delta, n_\epsilon, N)$ is the probability that more points than m_* will map from δ into ϵ , which will be less than probability 0.05. The count of the number of fiducial points at which $m_i > m_*$ we call N_{sig} . To quantify the significance of the global continuity, we use the cumulative binomial distribution to determine the probability that the number of points that reached significance, N_{sig} , might have done so at random [10], $b_{cum}(N_{sig}|N_f, p_*) = \sum_{r=0}^{N_{sig}} \frac{N_f!}{r!(N_f-r)!} p_*^r (1-p_*)^{N_f-r}$, using the given p_* and N_f (number of fiduciary points). If the cumulative binomial statistic is larger than 0.95 then we can reject our null hypothesis that the two data sets are uncoupled.

Using the hypergeometric function and the binomial distribution assumes that the fiduciary points and their neighbors must be independent, implying that the local neighborhoods cannot overlap. Overlapping the neighborhoods around the fiduciary points would result in larger numbers of significant fiduciary points than would be anticipated by the binomial statistic. To prevent overlap the state space is tessellated into regions with equal numbers of points. Tessellation is performed by finding the first principal component of the entire data set (the direction for which the most variance in the data is observed), projecting and rank ordering the points onto the first principal component, and tessellating the data set at the median point. Each of the two resulting regions are then similarly tessellated by finding the first principal components of each region and subdividing at their medians. The fiducial points were selected as the points closest to the geometric center of each tessellation.

Such a measure of continuity is dependent upon the selection of neighborhood sizes n^δ and n^ϵ . Without a priori knowledge of the data set's underlying dynamics or noise, a range of n^δ and n^ϵ are examined for a range of embedding dimensions.

Uni-directionally coupled Hénon maps were used to test the sensitivity of the continuity measure: $Y(t+1) = 1.4 - Y(t)^2 + 0.3Y(t-1)$, $X(t+1) = 1.4 - (CY(t) + (1-C)X(t))X(t) + 0.3X(t-1)$, where C sets the coupling strength. For weak coupling, $C = 0.02$, after discarding the first 1000 iterated points to avoid transient dynamics, the subsequent 8000 iterations were used for analysis (top panel, Fig. 2). The second panel shows crosscorrelation which was calculated on the data, with the Bartlet estimator [8] indicated as a 95% confidence limit (second panel). One would expect no more than 5% of the crosscorrelation values to be greater than this confidence interval by chance, and the data in this figure suggest no significant linear crosscorrelation.

The next panels in Figure 2 illustrate how a small region of points labeled δ in the drive system (third panel left), maps to the correspondingly indexed points in the response system (third panel right). The tessellation of the Hénon system is illustrated in the driver data (third panel left of Figure 2). Such tessellation was applied to the drive system until 7 points remained within each tessellation, following which the most central points within the drive system were selected as fiducial, and the corresponding time indexed points in the response system were identified as fiducial. The ϵ regions of the response system were selected as nearest neighbors about these response fiducial points. The probabilities associated with both forward drive to response and reverse response to drive mappings were determined, by alternately selecting the driver or response system to be tessellated.

The bottom panel of Figure 2 illustrates the result of the continuity statistic. Significant continuity is not identified for the drive to response system, as anticipated in the weak coupling regime. Nevertheless, there is significant continuity identified from the response to the drive system. In a unidirectional drive-response system, the response system at all finite coupling strengths always contains information and a significant mapping from response to drive. In such systems, the appearance of a functional relationship from drive to response is seen only at higher coupling strengths at the onset of generalized synchronization.

The response of these two methods, crosscorrelation and continuity, as a function of additive noise are instructive. Figure 3 shows a comparison of sensitivity of the methods on coupled Hénon maps with 4 levels of Gaussian additive noise: 0, 0.125, 0.25, and 0.5 standard deviations, σ , of the amplitude distribution measured from the drive and response data set respectively. Without additive noise, the continuity measure is far more sensitive to weak coupling in this system than is crosscorrelation. However, as noise increases, crosscorrelation

becomes a more robust determinate of coupling in this nonlinear system.

To demonstrate whether two ensembles of neurons from the brain are coupled, we record from simultaneously impaled neurons within a live neuronal network, each from within separate neighborhoods of neurons. We turn off the spike generating mechanism in the impaled neurons in order to use them as receivers of inputs from their respective neighborhoods, then test whether the received signals are related. Rats brain slices were prepared as in [11]. Simultaneous intracellular voltage measurements from two neurons were recorded using whole cell patch clamp. Action potentials were suppressed by hyperpolarizing, permitting accurate measurement of the input synaptic currents. Coupling was measured under two conditions that altered the functional relationship between the neurons: slices bathed in fluid containing normal potassium concentration (3.5 mM $[K^+]$) versus mildly elevated potassium (5.5 mM $[K^+]$). This elevation in extracellular potassium causes a small increase in neuronal coupling [11].

Figure 4 illustrates the voltage recordings from 2 neurons in this system, as a function of low (left column) and high (right column) $[K^+]$ respectively. Time delay embedding lags were determined from the decay of the mutual information between the embedded time series as a function of lag [12]. Lag selected was the minimum integer value causing decay of the mutual information to $1/e$ of its value at 0 lag. Without knowledge of the underlying dynamics of the neuronal data, we tested for continuity at a range of embedding dimensions, d , showing data for $d=1, 2$ and 3 in the figure.

The low $[K^+]$ condition is associated with no evidence of substantial coupling, in either crosscorrelation or continuity (Figure 4 left). At the higher $[K^+]$ level, these neurons are more heavily coupled within the network, and crosscorrelation is significant (Figure 4 right). In addition, continuity in elevated $[K^+]$, both forward and inverse, is significant at $d=1$ and 3 (Figure 4 right). In this neuronal network, we do not know (and cannot determine) the full nature of functional relationship between the neurons. Nevertheless, our finding of significant continuity establishes that these 2 neurons are functionally related, implying a common dynamical link.

An unknown balance between noise and nonlinearity in systems where an accurate model of the underlying equations is lacking may render it impossible to rely upon either global linear or local nonlinear methods alone to test for coupling between systems. We propose that a balanced approach to coupling identification in such systems is required, and will

FIG. 1: Schematic of balance of noise versus nonlinearity, and optimal coupling detection schemes. In low noise conditions, nonlinear methods have an advantage over linear methods for nonlinear systems. Linear methods are well suited to detection in noisy linear systems. It is unknown how noise affects the detection for highly nonlinear systems. For data from many natural systems, the quadrant is unknown a priori.

FIG. 2: Weakly coupled Hénon systems, with raw data from drive and response time series shown in the upper panel. Second panel shows crosscorrelation, with 95% confidence intervals from the Bartlett estimator indicated as solid lines. Third panel shows tessellation of driver Hénon system, and a δ region is indicated. Points from the δ region mapped to dark circles within the response system (right), and a fraction of these points fall within the ϵ region indicated. Lower panel shows continuity results with probability indicated as grey scale, dark being highly significant. We assume that epsilon will in general be larger than delta, and therefore only calculate values above the diagonal line.

expand on these findings in a more detailed report [13]. By using these two methods with contrasting assumptions we have covered the whole of Figure 1. We speculate that the question mark in the noisy nonlinear quadrant in Figure 1 might be a global linear approach such as crosscorrelation, but this remains to be proven. Most importantly, we have elevated the continuity statistic beyond the usual ad hoc definitions requiring massive numerical work to gain statistical significance to an analytical level on par with the crosscorrelation where significance can be calculated directly.

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* Corresponding Author; Email address: sschiff@gmu.edu

FIG. 3: Sensitivity of crosscorrelation versus continuity as a function of coupling strength and additive noise between Hénon systems. Continuity is more sensitive for the nonlinear case, but crosscorrelation is far more robust at all levels of additive noise

FIG. 4: Simultaneously measured intracellular voltages from two neurons as a function of low, left, and high, right, $[K^+]$ levels. No evidence of significant coupling, linear or nonlinear, is observed in low $[K^+]$, but evidence for both cross correlation and continuity (forward and reverse) is observed in high $[K^+]$.

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